



Facile synthesis and enhanced visible-light photoactivity of DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite semiconductors

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ABSTRACT

DyVO₄/iodine modified graphitic carbon nitride (DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I) composite semiconductors with different weight percents of DyVO₄ were successfully synthesized by a facile heating method, and characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), UV-vis diffuse reflection spectroscopy (UV-vis DRS), photoluminescence (PL) and electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra, N₂ adsorption–desorption analysis and photo-electrochemical measurement. The resulting DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I semiconductor with a suitable weight percents of 6.3% DyVO₄ showed the highest visible-light photoactivity, and its degradation ratio for methylene blue was more than 1.8 time higher than that of DyVO₄, g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄I. The H₂ evolution rate of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I was 10.6, 4.7 and 1.7 times higher than that of DyVO₄, g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄I, respectively, while still having excellent reusability and stability. The obviously enhanced photoactivity of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is mainly ascribed to the fact that the proper DyVO₄ modified g-C₃N₄I increase its specific surface area, decrease band-gap energy, enhance absorption in the 400–700 nm region and promote efficient separation of photo-generated carriers. The mechanism on the improvement of visible-light photoactivity is discussed.

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1. Introduction

Polymeric graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) photocatalyst possesses many fascinating properties, such as metal-free semiconductor, environmentally benign, good thermal and chemical stability, appropriate conduction band and valence band positions [1–7]. Over the past several years, g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst attracted great attention owing to its successful application in photocatalytic hydrogen evolution [1,8], CO₂ reduction [9] and contaminant removal [10,11] under visible light irradiation, while the photocatalytic activity of pristine g-C₃N₄ is moderate. Recently, it has been found that iodine modified graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄I) semiconductors possess large charge carrier mobility, strong visible-light harvesting and obvious changes of energy band structure, compared with pristine g-C₃N₄ [12,13]. Nowadays, g-C₃N₄I photocatalyst has become a research hot topic in the field of environmental and energy science [12], which calls for the further

modification and development of g-C₃N₄I for solar photocatalysis applications.

Previous studies have shown that the construction of g-C₃N₄-based composite materials can enhance the separation efficiency of photo-induced carriers at the heterojunction of composites to improve photocatalytic properties [4–7,11,14–18]. For example, Dontsova et al. [19] developed a SnO₂/carbon nitride composite photocatalyst to improve the hydrogen evolution of mesoporous carbon nitride under visible light irradiation, and Yan et al. [20] prepared N-doped ZnO/g-C₃N₄ core-shell nanoplate with higher visible-light activity than either a single phase of g-C₃N₄ or N-doped ZnO for the degradation of Rhodamine B.

DyVO₄ has a small band gap (~2.3 eV) and shows a strong absorption in the visible-light region [21]. Moreover, DyVO₄ has a matching conduction band and valence band position with g-C₃N₄I [12,13,21]. In theory, the coupling of DyVO₄ with g-C₃N₄I can allow band alignment to promote the separation of photo-generated electron–hole pairs. Therefore, the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite may be a hopeful candidate of efficient photocatalysts.

In this work, DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite photocatalysts with different weight percents of DyVO₄ were successfully synthesized by a facile heating method at 550 °C for 4.0 h, and the effect of DyVO₄ contents on the structure and photocatalytic activity of

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DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I catalysts was studied in details. The structure of DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I catalysts was characterized by XRD, XPS, TEM, PL, EPR, UV-vis DRS, N₂ adsorption–desorption analysis and photo-electrochemical measurements. The visible-light photoactivity of DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I for H₂ evolution and methylene blue degradation was greatly enhanced as compared to either g-C₃N₄I or DyVO₄. The transfer process of photo-induced carriers was proposed based on the band structures of DyVO₄ and g-C₃N₄I. This work describes a visible-light responsive DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite semiconductor with potential in energy and environmental applications.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of photocatalysts

The synthetic procedure of DyVO₄ was as follows: Dy(NO₃)₃ and NH₄VO₃ were separately dissolved in deionized water in a same molar ratio. Then, the two solutions were mixed to produce a yellow precipitate. The pH value of above solutions was adjusted to 7.0 by a solution of NH₃. After being aged for 4.0 h at room temperature, the deposit was filtered and washed several times with deionized water, dried at 110 °C for 10 h, and calcined at 500 °C for 2.0 h using air atmosphere.

The DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites were synthesized by a heating method. Firstly, the iodine doped g-C₃N₄I catalyst was prepared by mixing dicyandiamide (2.0 g) with ammonium iodine (1.0 g) in 15 mL deionized water under stirring at 80 °C to remove water, and then the resultant solids were mixed with a certain of DyVO₄ and ground in an agate mortar for 30 min. Secondly, the mixture was calcined at 550 °C for 4.0 h at air atmosphere. The weight percents of DyVO₄ in the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites were obtained by energy dispersive analysis of X-rays (EDX), and were denoted as 3.2%, 6.3%, and 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, respectively. For comparison purpose, g-C₃N₄I catalyst was prepared by a similar method at the absence of DyVO₄, and the pristine g-C₃N₄ catalyst was synthesized by a directly calcination of dicyandiamide at 550 °C for 4 h at air.

2.2. Characterization

The XRD measurements of samples were performed at a BrukerD8 X-ray diffractometer using Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.15418 \text{ nm}$). Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images of samples were collected from JEM-200CX. X-ray photo-electron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements of samples were carried out on a PHI 5000 VersaProbe instrument. The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (UV-vis DRS) were recorded by a spectrophotometer (TU-1901). The photoluminescence (PL) spectra of as-fabricated samples were collected by FluoroMax-4 (HORIBA, USA) with an excitation wavelength at 400 nm. Specific surface areas and pore structures of the samples were recorded from N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms at 77 K, using an ASAP2020HD88 instrument. EPR spectra were determined by using a Bruker model A300 spectrometer. Photo-electrochemical measurements were performed by a BAS Epsilon Electrochemical System under visible-light irradiation with a conventional three electrode cell, immersing in 50 mL solution of 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ (pH 6.8). The sample electrodes were used as the working electrodes, which were fabricated on indium-tin oxide (ITO) conductor glasses. Powder samples (10 mg) were dispersed in 800 μL N,N-dimethylformamide with sonication to get a slurry mixture. The slurry was spread onto ITO glass whose side part was previously protected through a Scotch tape. The working electrode was dried overnight at ambient conditions. Uncoated parts of the electrode were isolated with epoxy resin. Pt plate and Ag/AgCl (3 mol/L KCl) electrodes were used as a reference and a counter electrode, respectively. A 300 W Xe lamp was employed as the excitation light

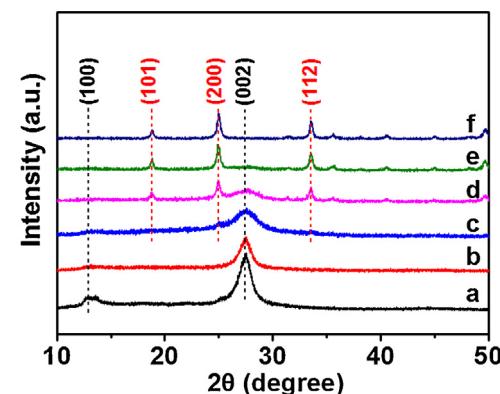


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of (a) g-C₃N₄, (b) g-C₃N₄I, (c) 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, (d) 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, (e) 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, and (f) DyVO₄ samples.

source, and combined with a visible light band-pass filter (greater than 420 nm).

2.3. Photocatalytic test

The photo-degradation of methylene blue for as-prepared samples was carried out in a photoreaction apparatus under a 500 W Xe lamp irradiation with a 420 nm cut-off filter. For photocatalytic reaction, 0.2 g of catalyst was put into 50 mL (10 mg/L) methylene blue solution. Prior to visible-light irradiation, the suspension was magnetically stirred for 1.0 h to reach an adsorption–desorption equilibrium in the dark. About 3.0 mL liquid was taken at given time interval of irradiation and centrifuged to remove the catalyst for analysis by a TU-1901 spectroscopy.

H₂ evolution was performed by the dispersion of catalyst (50 mg) in an 100 mL aqueous solution that contained triethanolamine (10 vol%), and 3 wt% Pt was loaded onto the surface of the catalyst by the in situ photo-deposition method using H₂PtCl₆ as starting material. The reactant solution was evacuated several times to remove air before visible-light irradiation, which was generated by using a 300 W Xe lamp attached to a 420 nm cut-off filter. During the reaction, the temperature of the reactant solution was maintained at room temperature by a flow of cooling water. The evolved gases were analyzed by a gas chromatography (Shimadzu, GC-8A).

3. Results and discussion

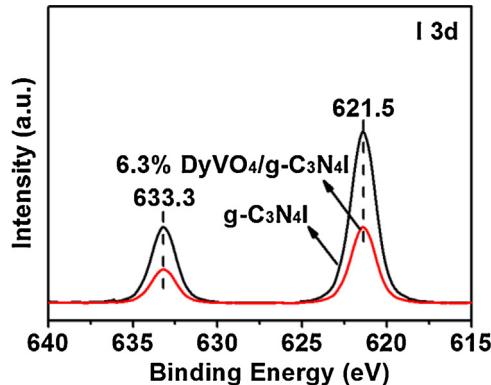
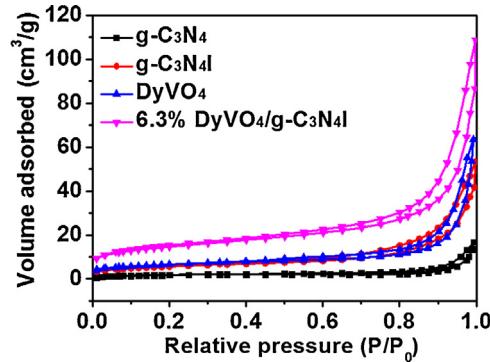
3.1. Characterization

Fig. 1 shows the XRD patterns of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ samples. One distinct peak is found in g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄I at 27.4°, corresponding to the stacking of the CN-conjugated layers along the (0 0 2) direction [14,22]. DyVO₄ presents several robust diffraction peaks at 18.7°, 24.9° and 33.5°, which were indexed to those of tetragonal DyVO₄ and correspond to (1 0 1), (2 0 0), and (1 1 2) crystal plane [23], respectively. With the increase of DyVO₄ content in the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites, the DyVO₄ peaks gradually strengthen at the expense of those of g-C₃N₄I, which verify the co-existence of both DyVO₄ and g-C₃N₄I phases in DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I hybrid materials.

Fig. 2 exhibits the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) of g-C₃N₄I and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples. Obviously, the high resolution XPS spectra of I 3d indicates two peaks centered at 621.5 and 633.3 eV, corresponding to the I 3d_{5/2} and I 3d_{3/2} [12], respectively. This result confirms the existence of iodine in g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.

Table 1Physicochemical properties of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, DyVO₄ and DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.

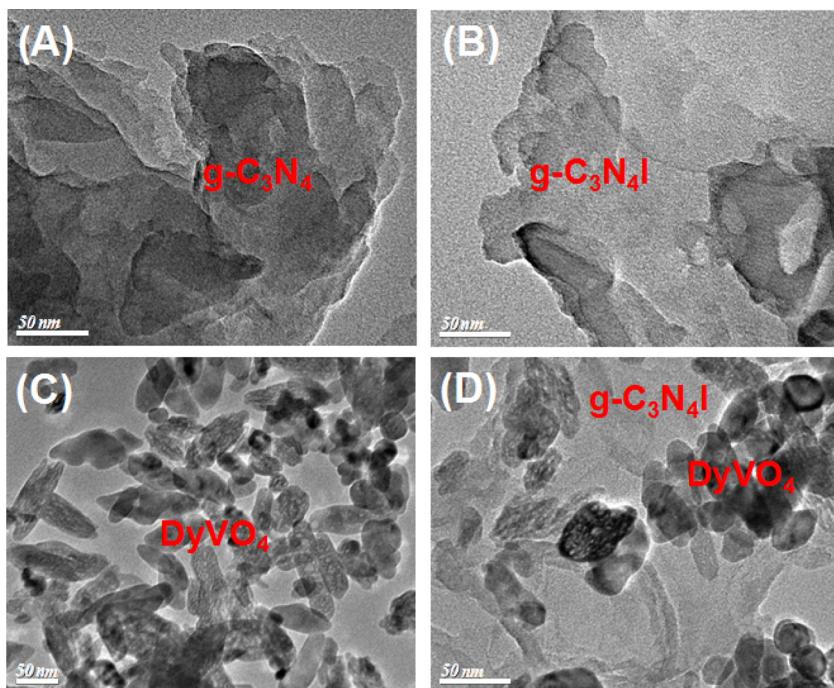
Sample	Specific surface area (m ² /g)	Pore volume (cm ³ /g)	Average pore size (nm)	Band gap (eV)
g-C ₃ N ₄	7	0.02	8.5	2.70
g-C ₃ N ₄ I	22	0.06	9.9	2.68
3.2% DyVO ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄ I	34	0.07	5.8	2.65
6.3% DyVO ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄ I	50	0.10	8.0	2.61
9.7% DyVO ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄ I	42	0.08	8.6	2.64
DyVO ₄	20	0.05	10.4	2.32

**Fig. 2.** XPS spectra of g-C₃N₄I and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.**Fig. 3.** Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, DyVO₄ and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.

The N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, DyVO₄ and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples are indicated in Fig. 3. It can be observed that all of the isotherms are of type IV, usually associated with capillary condensation in mesopores [14,24,25]. The specific surface area, pore volume, and average pore size of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ samples are listed in Table 1.

The specific surface area of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is 50 m²/g, which is higher than that of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ at 7, 22, 34, 42 and 20 m²/g, respectively. The pore size of the samples is estimated by the

Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method, and the pore diameters of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ samples are approximately 8.5, 9.9, 5.8, 8.0, 8.6 and 10.4 nm, respectively. The pore volume of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is 0.10 cm³/g, which is larger than that of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ at 0.02, 0.06, 0.07, 0.08 and 0.05 cm³/g, respectively. The higher specific surface area and pore volume of the 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I sample are likely to contribute to the enhancement of the photoactivity.

**Fig. 4.** TEM images of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, DyVO₄ and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.

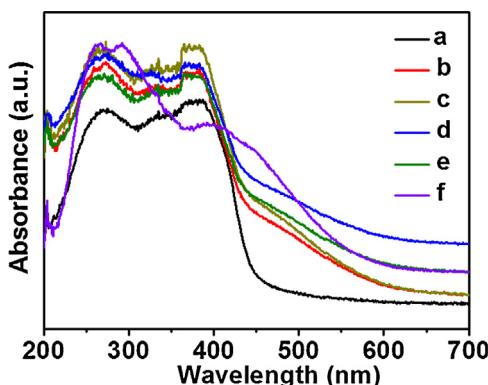


Fig. 5. UV-vis DRS of (a) g-C₃N₄, (b) g-C₃N₄I, (c) 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, (d) 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, (e) 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, and (f) DyVO₄ samples.

The formation of the composite between g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ is demonstrated clearly by the TEM images (Fig. 4). A typical layered platelet-like surface morphology (Fig. 4A and B) and a rod-like nanostructure with an average particle size of approximately 25 nm (Fig. 4C) are identified for g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄, respectively [12,23]. In Fig. 4D, it can be seen that DyVO₄ is packed closely onto g-C₃N₄I, both of which are integrated together as a composite, and DyVO₄ is grafted on the surface of g-C₃N₄I, which results in the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I hybrid.

The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ samples are shown in Fig. 5. It can be observed that there is a clear red-shift of the absorption of the g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites in comparison with that of g-C₃N₄. All samples show absorption in the 400–700 nm visible-light region, and the photo-absorption ability of DyVO₄ is stronger than that of g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄I. According to the previously reported strategy [12,14,23,26], the estimated optical absorption band gap for 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ semiconductors, is 2.65, 2.61, 2.64 and 2.32 eV, respectively, which is smaller than that of g-C₃N₄ (2.70 eV) and g-C₃N₄I (2.68 eV). Therefore, the interaction between g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ in the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite may contribute to the narrowing of the band gap due to the modified electronic structures. Interestingly, the content of DyVO₄ in the 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I sample is higher, but the band gap of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is 0.03 eV lower than that of 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, suggesting the interaction between g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ can contribute to the best photoresponse and the narrowest band gap among the as-prepared DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.

Photoluminescence (PL) emission spectroscopy has been used as a tool to reveal the transfer and separation efficiency of photo-generated charge carriers [14,27,28]. The PL emission spectra of

g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples were measured at room temperature with an excitation wavelength of 400 nm (Fig. 6A). Obviously, a strong PL emission peak is observed for g-C₃N₄, which can be attributed to the radiative recombination of charge carriers [12,14]. Compared with g-C₃N₄ or g-C₃N₄I, the emission peak position of the 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite is hardly changed, but its relative intensity is lower, suggesting that the combination of DyVO₄ and g-C₃N₄I can significantly enhance the separation efficiency of the photo-induced electron–hole pairs.

Fig. 6B shows the EPR spectra of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples. A Lorentzian line centered at $g=2.0034$ is observed, implying the generation of unpaired electrons on π -conjugated CN aromatic rings [14,29]. Clearly, this Lorentzian line is enhanced after the formation of the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite, presumably due to the redistribution of π electrons within the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite through band offsets [14]. Hence, the formation of DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite is helpful for charge migration and separation by optimizing the electronic band structure.

Fig. 7A and B shows the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy and photocurrent tests of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples, respectively. An obvious decrease in the diameter of the Nyquist plot for 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is observed (Fig. 7A), implying that the electronic resistance of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is smaller than that of g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄I [12,14,30], which is also supported by the photocurrent tests (Fig. 7B). An improved photocurrent for 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is generated, which is 3.6 and 1.2 times higher than that of g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄I, respectively, indicating strongly that the separation and migration of the photo-excited charge carriers is improved in the 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite [14,31], which is consistent with the results of PL.

3.2. Photocatalytic property

The visible-light photocatalytic activity of the as-prepared g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ samples was evaluated by the photo-degradation of methylene blue (Fig. 8A), which is used commonly to test the degradation capability of catalysts. When methylene blue in an aqueous solution is irradiated with visible light for 4.0 h in the absence of a photocatalyst, little change in the methylene blue concentration is observed, which shows that the self-photodegradation of methylene blue is very limited. As the DyVO₄ content in the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites increases from 3.2% to 9.7%, the photocatalytic activity of the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites first increases and then decreases, and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I indicates the highest activity. The photocatalytic activity of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is obviously higher than that of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄. After 4.0 h irradiation, approximately 65% of methylene

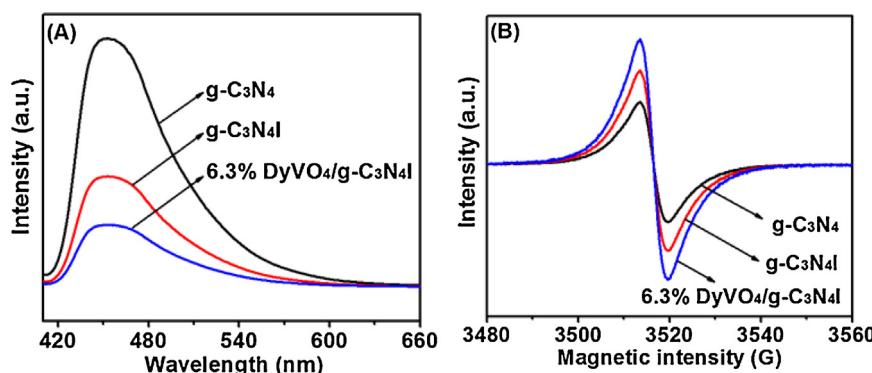


Fig. 6. (A) PL and (B) EPR spectra of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.

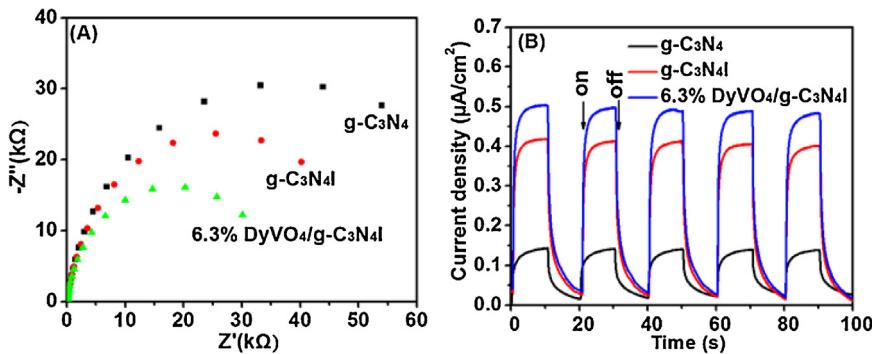


Fig. 7. (A) Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy and (B) transient photocurrents ($\lambda > 420$ nm) for g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I samples.

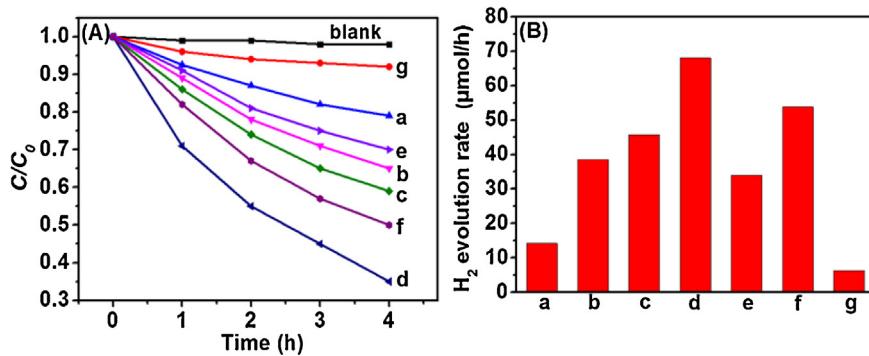


Fig. 8. (A) Photo-degradation of methylene blue and (B) photocatalytic hydrogen evolution rates for (a) g-C₃N₄, (b) g-C₃N₄I, (c) 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, (d) 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, (e) 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I (physical mixture), (f) 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, and (g) DyVO₄ samples under visible-light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm).

blue is removed by 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, while only 21%, 35% and 8% of methylene blue degradation are achieved by g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄, respectively.

The photocatalytic H₂ production over g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I, 3.2% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I, 9.7% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ photocatalysts was also studied (Fig. 8B). It can be observed that the photocatalytic efficiency for H₂ evolution exhibits a similar trend to that of methylene blue degradation with increasing DyVO₄ content in the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites. The photocatalytic H₂ evolution rate (68 μmol/h, with a quantum efficiency of ~1.8% at 405 nm) of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I is 4.7, 1.7 and 10.6 times higher than that of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄, respectively.

In order to underline the necessity of good interconnection between g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄ for DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites, 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I (physical mixture) was also tested for photocatalytic activity (Fig. 8). It can be seen that the photocatalytic activity of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I (physical mixture) is obviously lower than that of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I (Fig. 8A and B), elucidating the merit of hybridization.

3.3. Reactive species in the degradation of methylene blue

As been well known, superoxide radicals ($\bullet\text{O}_2^-$), holes (h^+), hydroxyl radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$) and/or H₂O₂ are possibly reactive species for the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants [32–35]. In order to study which of these species are involved in methylene blue degradation, we used benzoquinone (BQ), ammonium oxalate (AO), isopropanol (IPA) and catalase (CAT) as $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$, h^+ , $\bullet\text{OH}$ and H₂O₂ radical scavengers, respectively. By adding different scavengers to the photocatalytic reaction of methylene blue to remove the corresponding reactive species, the role of different reactive species in methylene blue photocatalytic process can be evaluated by the change of photocatalytic efficiency.

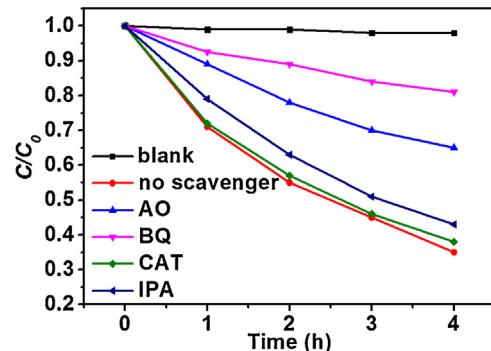
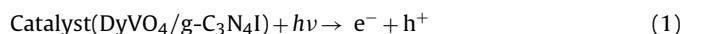


Fig. 9. Trapping test of photo-generated holes and radicals in the 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I photocatalytic system under visible-light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm).

In Fig. 9, it can be seen that the addition of CAT or IPA causes a slight change in the photo-degradation efficiency of 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I. This shows that H₂O₂ or $\bullet\text{OH}$ is not a significant active species in the photocatalytic process of methylene blue. However, an obvious suppression of photocatalytic activity is observed when BQ or AO is added, confirming the important role of $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ and h^+ in this system. Based on these results, it can be deduced that the photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue is mainly governed by $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ and h^+ rather than H₂O₂ or $\bullet\text{OH}$.

According to the above discussion, the probable reactions that occur in the photo-degradation of methylene blue are shown in Eqs. (1)–(4):



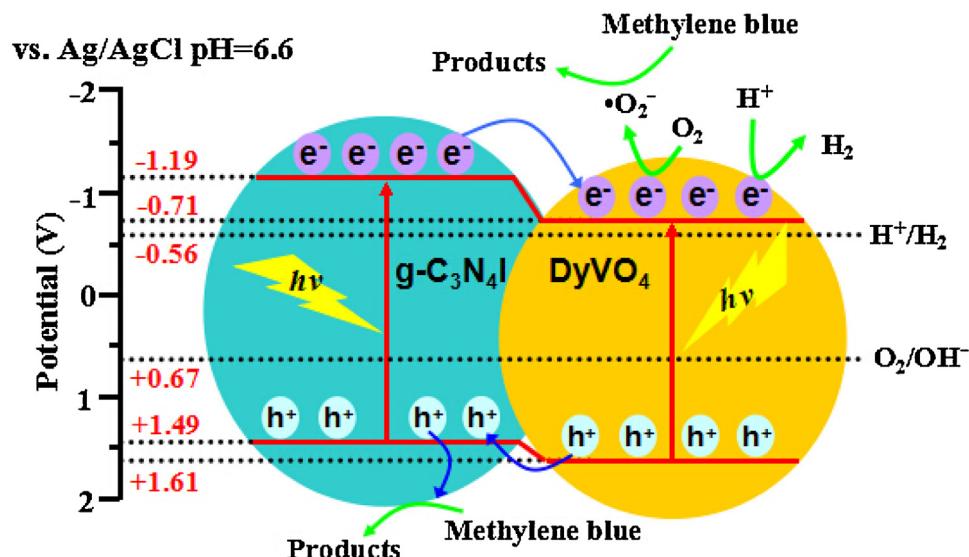
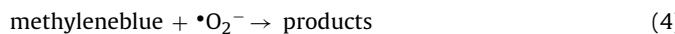


Fig. 10. Scheme for generation, transportation, and separation of visible-light-induced charge carries over the $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ composite photocatalysts.



3.4. The mechanism of the enhanced photoactivity

According to the previously reported strategy [15,36–38], the bottom conduction band and top valence band potentials of DyVO_4 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ are calculated to be -0.71 , $+1.61$, -1.19 and $+1.49$ V (vs. Ag/AgCl pH 6.6), respectively. As shown in Fig. 10, the conduction and valence band-edge between DyVO_4 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ are of very well matched positions. Once DyVO_4 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ are integrated together, the band alignment between the two semiconductors can drive the migration of photo-generated electrons (e^-) from $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ to DyVO_4 by the conduction band offset between $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ and DyVO_4 , whereas the photo-induced holes (h^+) are transferred from DyVO_4 to $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ by the valence band offset [12,14,15,23]. The redistribution of electrons on one side of the junction (DyVO_4) and holes on the opposite side ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$) can greatly reduce the recombination of electrons and holes, which was also confirmed by PL spectroscopy (Fig. 6A), electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (Fig. 7A) and photocurrent measurements (Fig. 7B). The successful separation of the photo-generated charge carriers in the $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ composite, which can increase the lifetime of the charge carriers and enhance the efficiency of the interfacial charge transfer to adsorbed substrates [14,15], and then promote photoredox reactions. Therefore, the photoactivity of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ is greatly enhanced after it is hybridized by DyVO_4 .

This change of visible-light photoactivity for the $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ composites may be attributed to two aspects. First, with the increase of DyVO_4 content in the $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ composites from 3.2% to 6.3%, a greater contact area between DyVO_4 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ will be formed, which promotes the efficient separation of photo-induced electron–hole pairs, leading to the enhancement of the photoactivity. Second, if the content of DyVO_4 increases continuously to excess, excess DyVO_4 may decrease the quality of effective contacts between DyVO_4 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$, which is unfavorable for the transfer and separation of photo-generated charge carriers at the heterointerfaces. Moreover, excessive DyVO_4 coverage on the surface of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ can block the active sites. Therefore, the photoactivity of the $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ composites first increases and then decreases with the increasing DyVO_4 content, which results in the optimal photoactivity of 6.3% $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$.

3.5. Stability test

It is widely known that the stability of the photocatalytic material is very important for its practical application. Therefore, the stability of $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ composites during the photocatalytic reaction was studied by recycling tests, using 6.3% $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ as a representative photocatalyst under the same condition (Fig. 11). It can be observed that there is no obvious change in the visible-light photocatalytic activity after four cycles, suggesting that 6.3% $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ composite was not photocorroded during the photocatalytic process and retained good stability, which can be

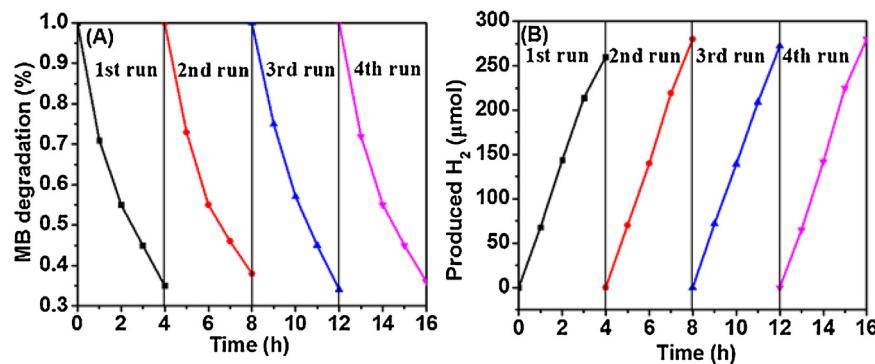


Fig. 11. Stability test of (A) methylene blue and (B) H_2 photosynthesis (evacuation every 4 h) for 6.3% $\text{DyVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{I}$ under visible-light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm).

attributed to the high separation and transfer of the photo-induced electron–hole pairs at the interfaces between DyVO₄ and g-C₃N₄I [14,39].

4. Conclusions

In summary, DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite semiconductor photocatalysts were successfully fabricated by a facile calcination method at 550 °C. Compared with g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄, the DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites showed a higher photo-degradation efficiency for methylene blue and a higher photocatalytic H₂ production rate under visible light irradiation. The 6.3%DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composite owned the highest photocatalytic activity for hydrogen evolution and the degradation of dye. The degradation ratio of methylene blue for the 6.3% DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I sample was more than 1.8 time higher than that of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄, whereas its H₂ evolution rate was 4.7, 1.7 and 10.6 times higher than that of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄I and DyVO₄, respectively. There is no obvious change in photoactivity after four photocatalytic operation cycles. In the degradation of methylene blue, •O₂⁻ and h⁺ species played a major role and the role of •OH and H₂O₂ species are negligible. This work not only highlights the photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue and H₂ generation for DyVO₄/g-C₃N₄I composites, but also provides relevant information for the future function-led design of multifunctional composite semiconductors applied in the field of energy and environment.

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